

# Chapter 1

## Computer Abstractions and Technology

# The Computer Revolution

- Progress in computer technology
  - Underpinned by Moore's Law
- Makes novel applications feasible
  - Computers in automobiles
  - Cell phones
  - Human genome project
  - World Wide Web / Internet of Things / Web3 / Metaverse
  - Search Engines
- Computers are pervasive

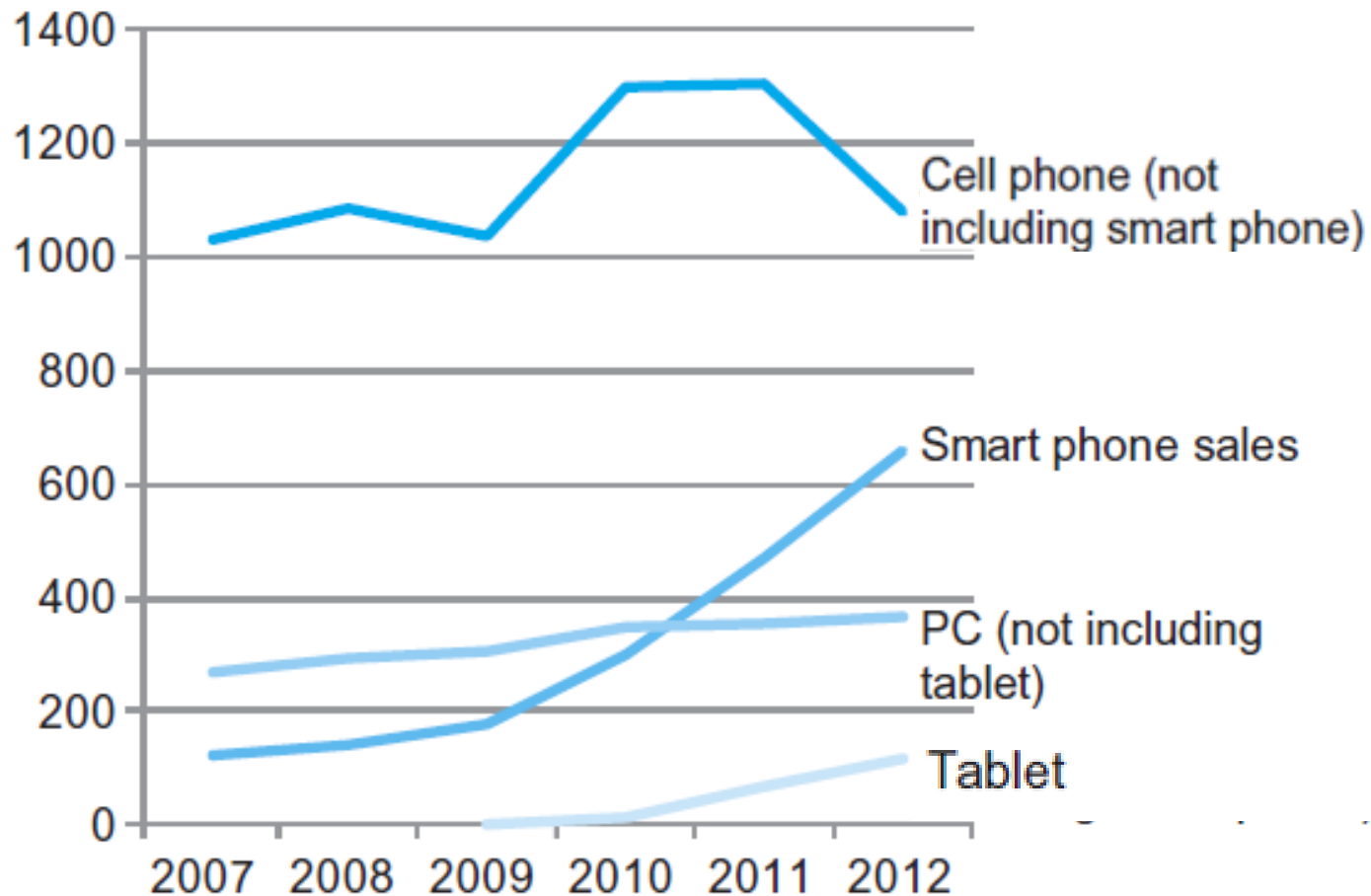
# Classes of Computers

- Personal computers
  - General purpose, variety of software
  - Subject to cost/performance tradeoff
- Server computers
  - Network based
  - High capacity, performance, reliability
  - Range from small servers to building sized

# Classes of Computers

- Supercomputers
  - High-end scientific and engineering calculations
  - Highest capability but represent a small fraction of the overall computer market
- Embedded computers
  - Hidden as components of systems
  - Stringent power/performance/cost constraints

# The PostPC Era



# The PostPC Era

- Personal Mobile Device (PMD)
  - Battery operated
  - Connects to the Internet
  - Hundreds of dollars
  - Smart phones, tablets, electronic glasses
- Cloud computing / **Edge computing**
  - Warehouse Scale Computers (WSC)
  - Software as a Service (SaaS)
  - Portion of software run on a PMD and a portion run in the Cloud
  - Amazon and Google

# What You Will Learn

- How programs are translated into the machine language
  - And how the hardware executes them
- The hardware/software interface
- What determines program performance
  - And how it can be improved
- How hardware designers improve performance
- What is parallel processing

# Understanding Performance

- Algorithm
  - Determines number of operations executed
- Programming language, compiler, architecture
  - Determine number of machine instructions executed per operation 第2、3章
- Processor and memory system 第4、5、6章
  - Determine how fast instructions are executed
- I/O system (including OS) 第4、5、6章
  - Determines how fast I/O operations are executed

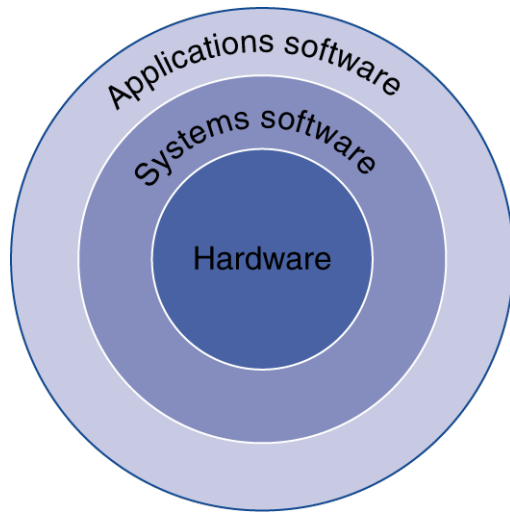


# Eight Great Ideas

- Design for **Moore's Law**
- Use **abstraction** to simplify design
- Make the **common case fast**
- Performance via **parallelism**
- Performance via **pipelining**
- Performance via **prediction**
- **Hierarchy** of memories
- **Dependability** via redundancy



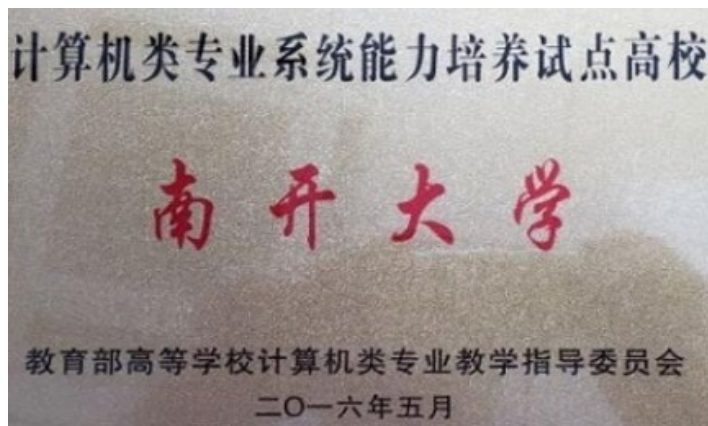
# Below Your Program



- Application software
  - Written in high-level language
- System software
  - Compiler: translates HLL code to machine code
  - Operating System: service code
    - Handling input/output
    - Managing memory and storage
    - Scheduling tasks & sharing resources

## Hardware

- Processor, memory, I/O controllers



# PTX2Kernel: Converting PTX Code into Compilable Kernels

<https://hgpu.org/?p=13773>

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**Abstract**—GPUs are now widely used as high performance general purpose computing devices. More and more applications have achieved large speedups with one or more GPUs, and the number of GPU programs is growing fast. In certain situations, the high level CUDA C code of kernels is not available, but low level PTX code can be extracted from binary files. It will be very useful if the PTX code could be converted into editable and compilable kernels, hence programmers can modify or tune the converted kernels to make a best fit version for specific applications at the CUDA C level. To the best of our knowledge, however, there is no such tool that supports the code conversion from PTX to kernel at present. In this paper, we propose the PTX2Kernel converter for converting embedded PTX code into editable and compilable CUDA C kernels without efficiency loss. The converted kernels have legal CUDA C interfaces, and PTX instructions are inlined in the CUDA kernel bodies. With the PTX2Kernel converter, it is much easier for programmers to make optimized kernel versions in case that only embedded PTX code is available. Two real world cases, the 4-mat GEMM and the band matrix multiplication, are used to demonstrate the flexibility that the PTX2Kernel converter provided for code optimization.

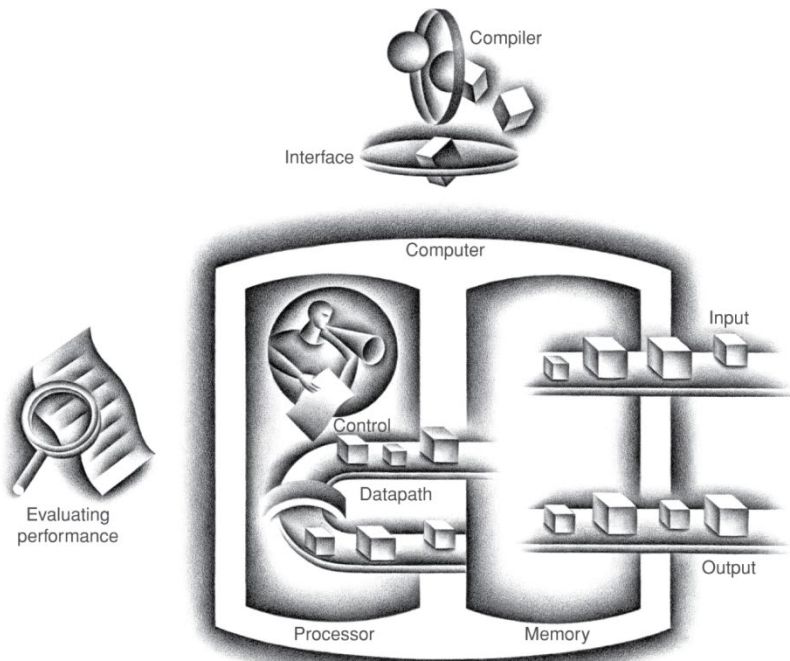
thread execution virtual machine and instruction set architecture (ISA) [6] in the CUDA compilation hierarchy. Kernels will be compiled into PTX code by the CUDA compiler `nvcc`, and the PTX code be embedded into the binary object files along with the CPU code. In case that the original CUDA C kernel source code is not available, but the binary executable files, shared object files, or static object files are in hand (this is just the situation when dealing with high performance libraries such as the `cuBLAS`), extracting the PTX code from the binary files and converting it into editable and compilable kernels will be very useful. Programmers can modify or fine tune the converted kernels to get a best fit version for their applications. To the best of our knowledge, however, there is no such tool that could convert embedded PTX code into compilable kernels.

Although converting embedded PTX code into compilable kernels seems a tough job, the conversion is possible because embedded PTX code preserves most information of the original kernels. In this paper, we propose the PTX2Kernel converter, which reads PTX code and generates grammatical CUDA C kernels. The converted kernels have legal CUDA C interfaces, and PTX instructions are inlined in kernel bodies.

**Keywords**—GPU; CUDA; PTX; kernel; PTX2Kernel

# Components of a Computer

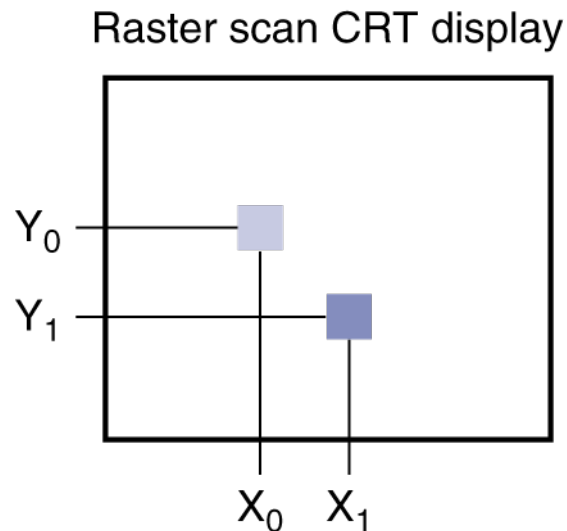
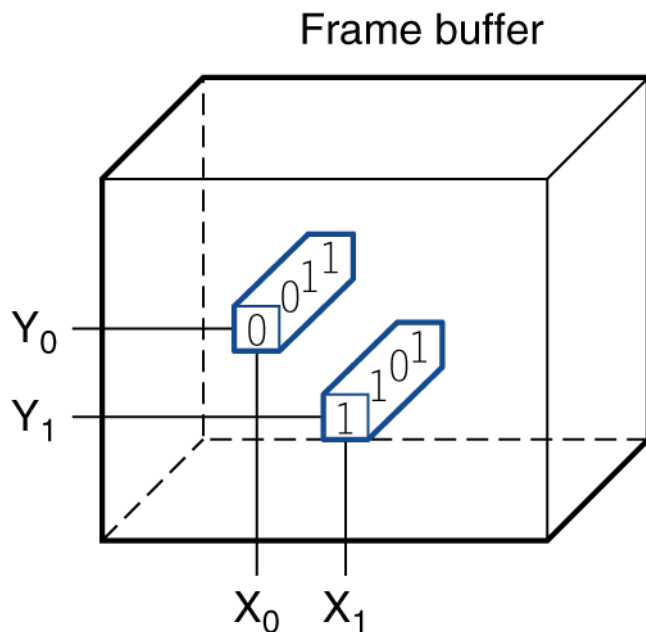
## The BIG Picture



- Same components for all kinds of computer
  - Desktop, server, embedded
- Input/output includes
  - User-interface devices
    - Display, keyboard, mouse
  - Storage devices
    - Hard disk, CD/DVD, flash
  - Network adapters
    - For communicating with other computers

# Through the Looking Glass

- LCD screen: picture elements (pixels)
  - Mirrors content of frame buffer memory



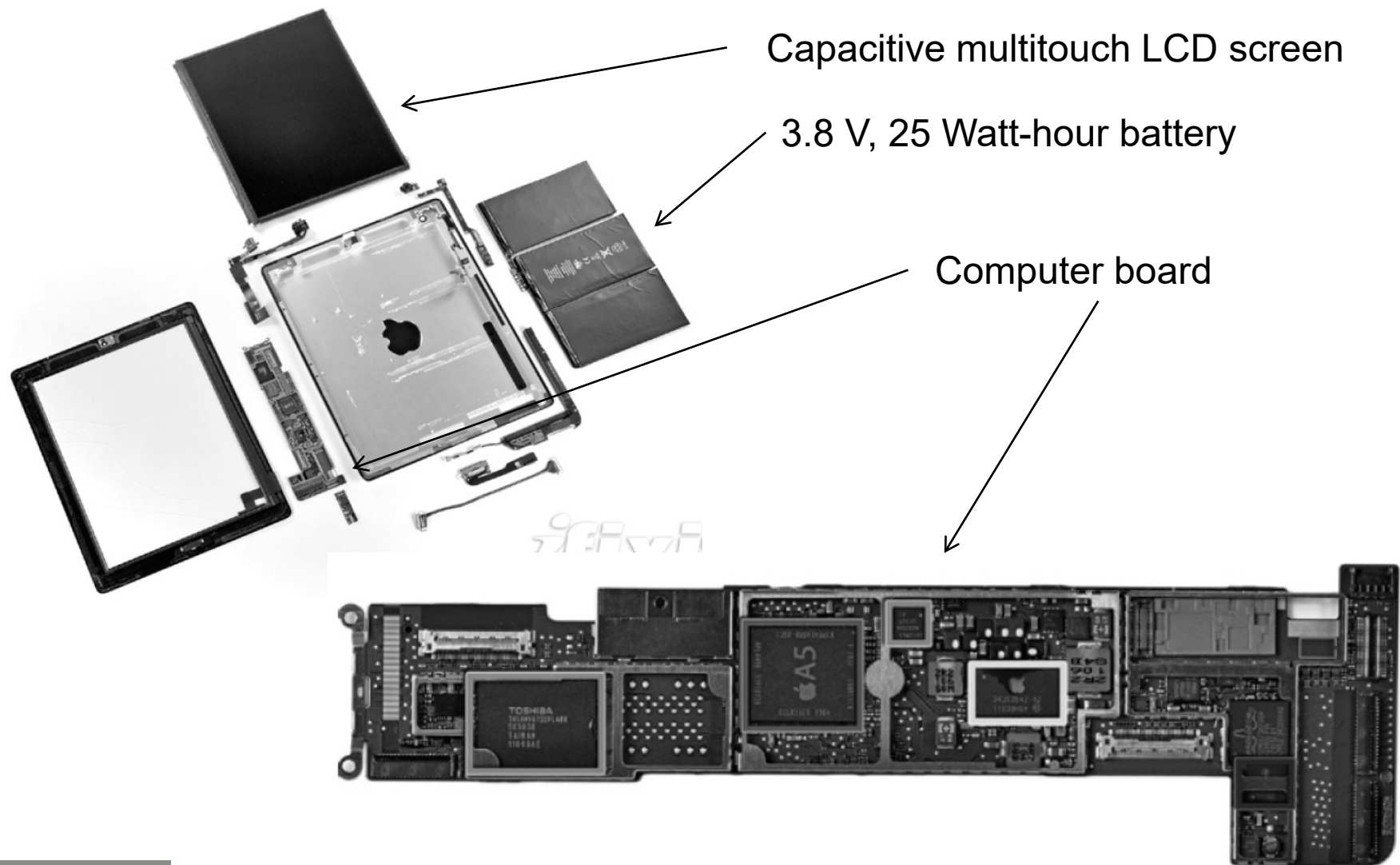
# Touchscreen

- PostPC device
- Supersedes keyboard and mouse
- Resistive and Capacitive types
  - Most tablets, smart phones use capacitive
  - Capacitive allows multiple touches simultaneously





# Opening the Box



# Inside the Processor (CPU)

- Datapath: performs operations on data
- Control: sequences datapath, memory, ...
- Cache memory
  - Small fast SRAM memory for immediate access to data
  - Example: Library / bookshelf / desk





# Inside the Processor

- Apple A5



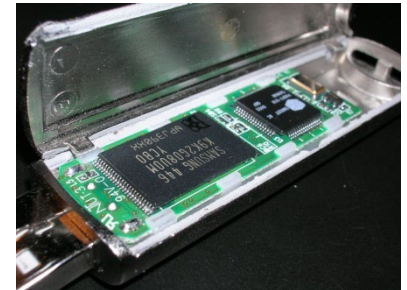
# Abstractions

## The BIG Picture

- Abstraction helps us deal with complexity
  - Hide lower-level detail
- Instruction set architecture (ISA)
  - The hardware/software interface
- Application binary interface
  - The ISA plus system software interface
- Implementation
  - The details underlying and interface

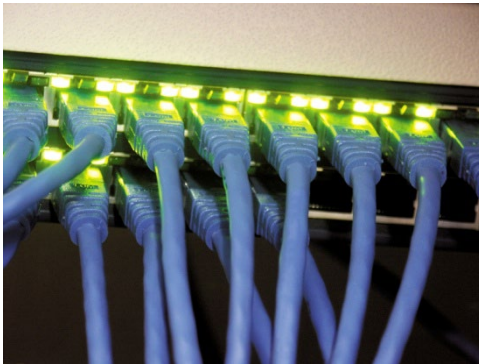
# A Safe Place for Data

- Volatile main memory
  - Loses instructions and data when power off
- Non-volatile secondary memory
  - Magnetic disk
  - Flash memory
  - Optical disk (CDROM, DVD)



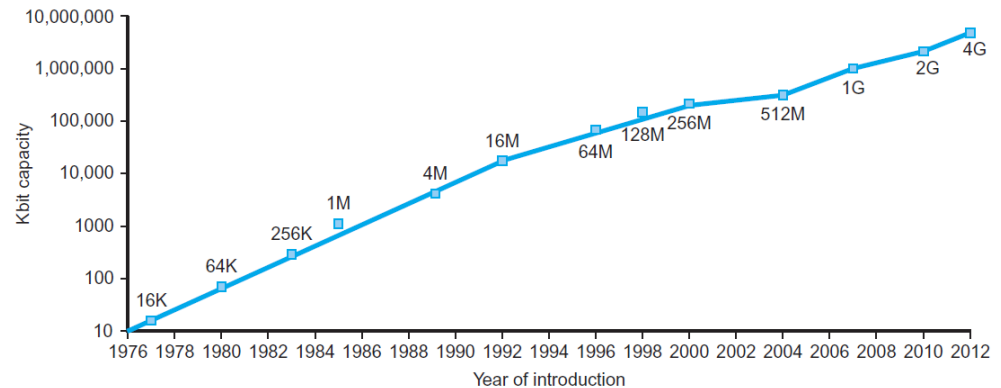
# Networks

- Communication, resource sharing, nonlocal access
- Local area network (LAN): Ethernet
- Wide area network (WAN): the Internet
- Wireless network: WiFi, Bluetooth, 5G



# Technology Trends

- Electronics technology continues to evolve
  - Increased capacity and performance
  - Reduced cost



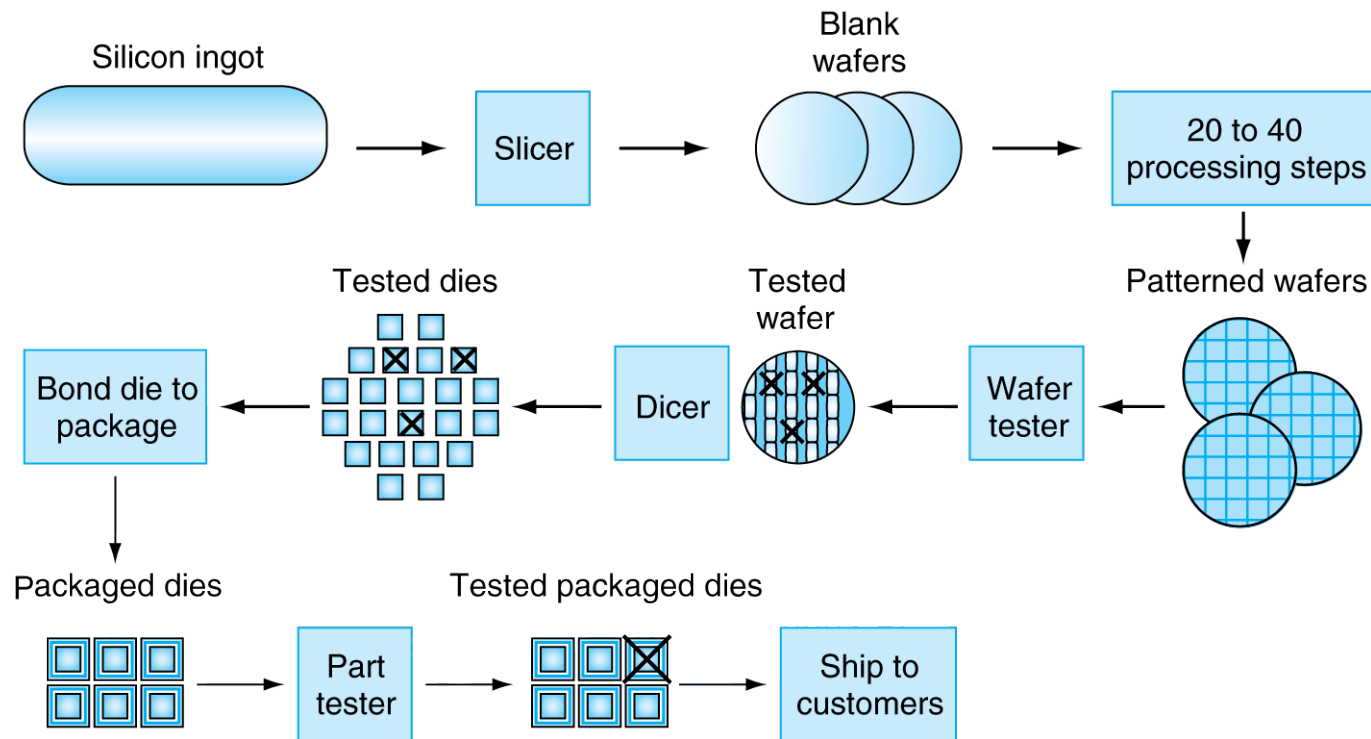
DRAM capacity

Year	Technology	Relative performance/cost
1951	Vacuum tube	1
1965	Transistor	35
1975	Integrated circuit (IC)	900
1995	Very large scale IC (VLSI)	2,400,000
2013	Ultra large scale IC	250,000,000,000

# Semiconductor Technology

- Silicon: semiconductor
- Add materials to transform properties:
  - Conductors
  - Insulators
  - Switch

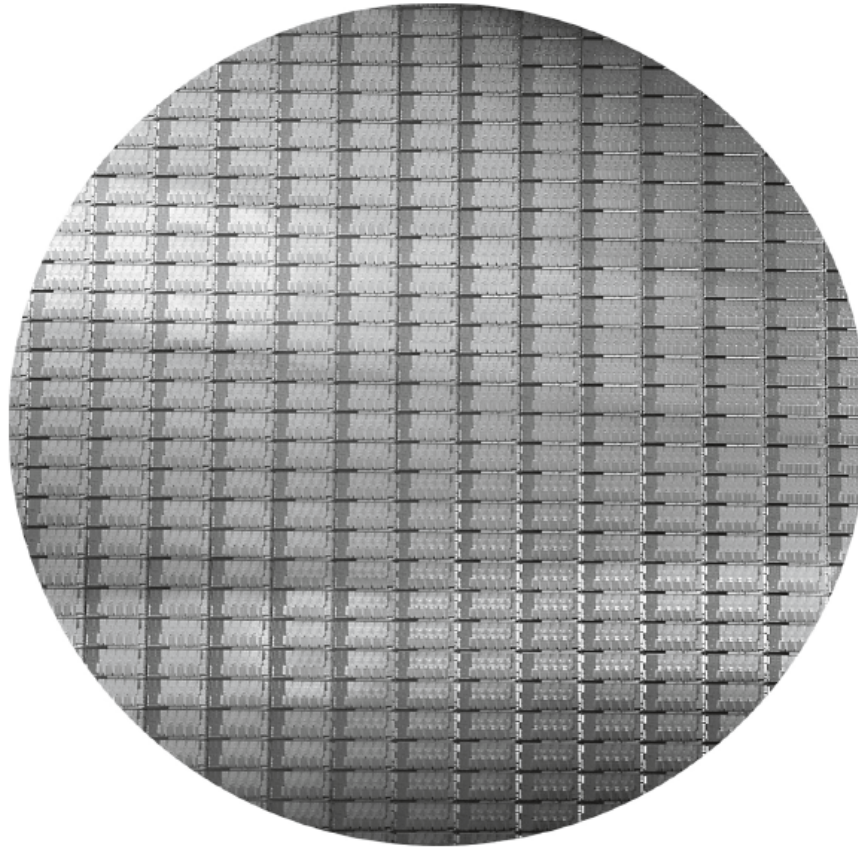
# Manufacturing ICs



- **Yield**: proportion of working dies per wafer



# Intel Core i7 Wafer



- 300mm wafer, 280 chips, 32nm technology
- Each chip is 20.7 x 10.5 mm



# Integrated Circuit Cost

$$\text{Cost per die} = \frac{\text{Cost per wafer}}{\text{Dies per wafer} \times \text{Yield}}$$

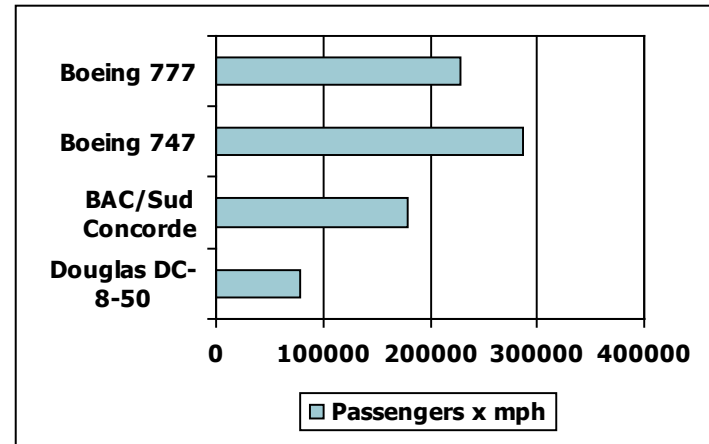
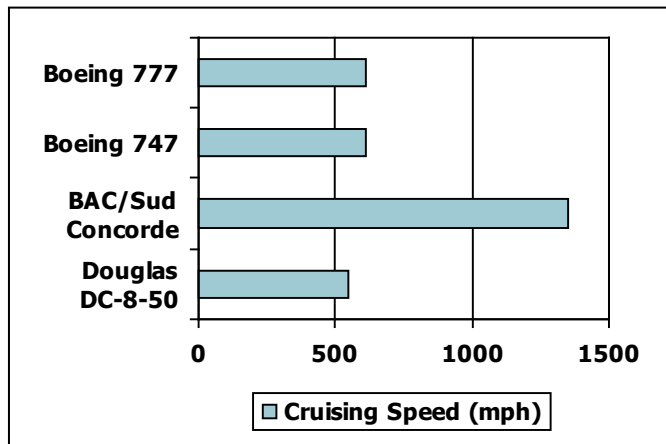
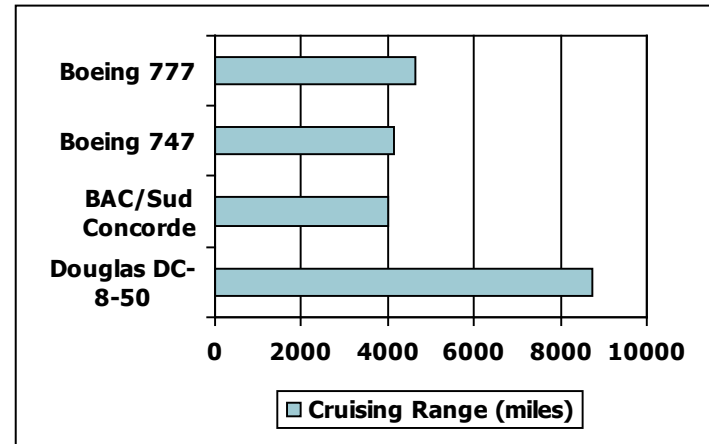
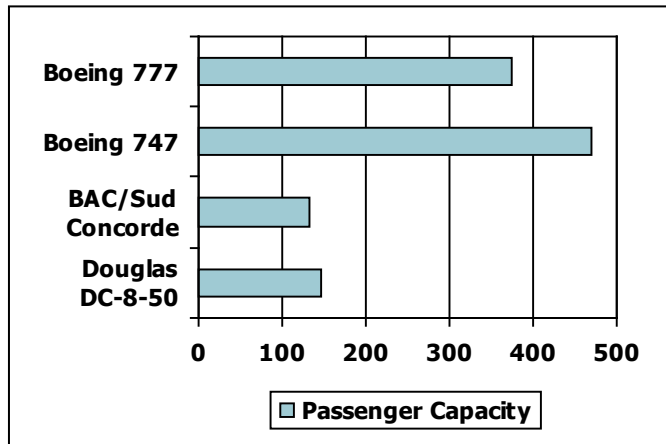
$$\text{Dies per wafer} \approx \text{Wafer area} / \text{Die area}$$

$$\text{Yield} = \frac{1}{(1 + (\text{Defects per area} \times \text{Die area} / 2))^2}$$

- Nonlinear relation to area and defect rate
  - Wafer cost and area are fixed
  - Defect rate determined by manufacturing process
  - Die area determined by architecture and circuit design

# Defining Performance

- Which airplane has the best performance?



# Response Time and Throughput

- Response time
  - How long it takes to do a task
- Throughput
  - Total work done per unit time
    - e.g., tasks/transactions/... per hour
- How are response time and throughput affected by
  - Replacing the processor with a faster version?
  - Adding more processors?
- We'll focus on response time for now...

# Relative Performance

- Define Performance = 1/Execution Time
- “X is  $n$  time faster than Y”

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Performance}_X / \text{Performance}_Y \\ &= \text{Execution time}_Y / \text{Execution time}_X = n \end{aligned}$$

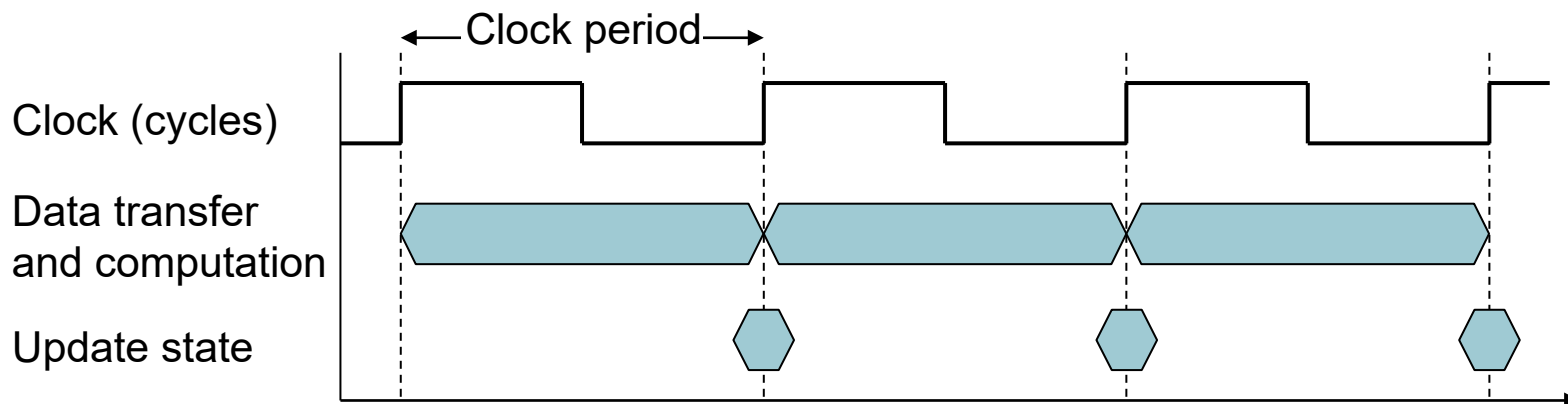
- Example: time taken to run a program
  - 10s on A, 15s on B
  - $\text{Execution Time}_B / \text{Execution Time}_A$   
 $= 15\text{s} / 10\text{s} = 1.5$
  - So A is 1.5 times faster than B

# Measuring Execution Time

- Elapsed time
  - Total response time, including all aspects
    - Processing, I/O, OS overhead, idle time
  - Determines system performance
- CPU time
  - Time spent processing a given job
    - Discounts I/O time, other jobs' shares
  - Comprises user CPU time and system CPU time
  - Different programs are affected differently by CPU and system performance

# CPU Clocking

- Operation of digital hardware governed by a constant-rate clock (Time Driven)



- Clock period: duration of a clock cycle
  - e.g.,  $250\text{ps} = 0.25\text{ns} = 250 \times 10^{-12}\text{s}$
- Clock frequency (rate): cycles per second
  - e.g.,  $4.0\text{GHz} = 4000\text{MHz} = 4.0 \times 10^9\text{Hz}$

# CPU Time

$$\begin{aligned}\text{CPU Time} &= \text{CPU Clock Cycles} \times \text{Clock Cycle Time} \\ &= \frac{\text{CPU Clock Cycles}}{\text{Clock Rate}}\end{aligned}$$

- Performance improved by
  - Reducing number of clock cycles
  - Increasing clock rate
  - Hardware designer must often trade off clock rate against cycle count

# CPU Time Example

- Computer A: 2GHz clock, 10s CPU time
- Designing Computer B
  - Aim for 6s CPU time
  - Can do faster clock, but causes  $1.2 \times$  clock cycles
- How fast must Computer B clock be?

$$\text{Clock Rate}_B = \frac{\text{Clock Cycles}_B}{\text{CPU Time}_B} = \frac{1.2 \times \text{Clock Cycles}_A}{6s}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Clock Cycles}_A &= \text{CPU Time}_A \times \text{Clock Rate}_A \\ &= 10s \times 2\text{GHz} = 20 \times 10^9\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Clock Rate}_B = \frac{1.2 \times 20 \times 10^9}{6s} = \frac{24 \times 10^9}{6s} = 4\text{GHz}$$



# Instruction Count and CPI

Clock Cycles = Instruction Count  $\times$  Cycles per Instruction

CPU Time = Instruction Count  $\times$  CPI  $\times$  Clock Cycle Time

$$= \frac{\text{Instruction Count} \times \text{CPI}}{\text{Clock Rate}}$$

- Instruction Count for a program
  - Determined by program, ISA and compiler
- Average cycles per instruction
  - Determined by CPU hardware
  - If different instructions have different CPI
    - Average CPI affected by instruction mix

# CPI Example

- Computer A: Cycle Time = 250ps, CPI = 2.0
- Computer B: Cycle Time = 500ps, CPI = 1.2
- Same ISA
- Which is faster, and by how much?

$$\begin{aligned}\text{CPU Time}_A &= \text{Instruction Count} \times \text{CPI}_A \times \text{Cycle Time}_A \\ &= 1 \times 2.0 \times 250\text{ps} = 1 \times 500\text{ps} \end{aligned}$$

← A is faster...

$$\begin{aligned}\text{CPU Time}_B &= \text{Instruction Count} \times \text{CPI}_B \times \text{Cycle Time}_B \\ &= 1 \times 1.2 \times 500\text{ps} = 1 \times 600\text{ps}\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\text{CPU Time}_B}{\text{CPU Time}_A} = \frac{1 \times 600\text{ps}}{1 \times 500\text{ps}} = 1.2$$

← ...by this much

# CPI in More Detail

- If different instruction classes take different numbers of cycles

$$\text{Clock Cycles} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\text{CPI}_i \times \text{Instruction Count}_i)$$

- Weighted average CPI

$$\text{CPI} = \frac{\text{Clock Cycles}}{\text{Instruction Count}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \text{CPI}_i \times \frac{\text{Instruction Count}_i}{\text{Instruction Count}} \right)$$

Relative frequency

# CPI Example

- Alternative compiled code sequences using instructions in classes A, B, C

Class	A	B	C
CPI for class	1	2	3
IC in sequence 1	2	1	2
IC in sequence 2	4	1	1

- Sequence 1: IC = 5

- Clock Cycles  
 $= 2 \times 1 + 1 \times 2 + 2 \times 3$   
 $= 10$
- Avg. CPI =  $10/5 = 2.0$

- Sequence 2: IC = 6

- Clock Cycles  
 $= 4 \times 1 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 3$   
 $= 9$
- Avg. CPI =  $9/6 = 1.5$

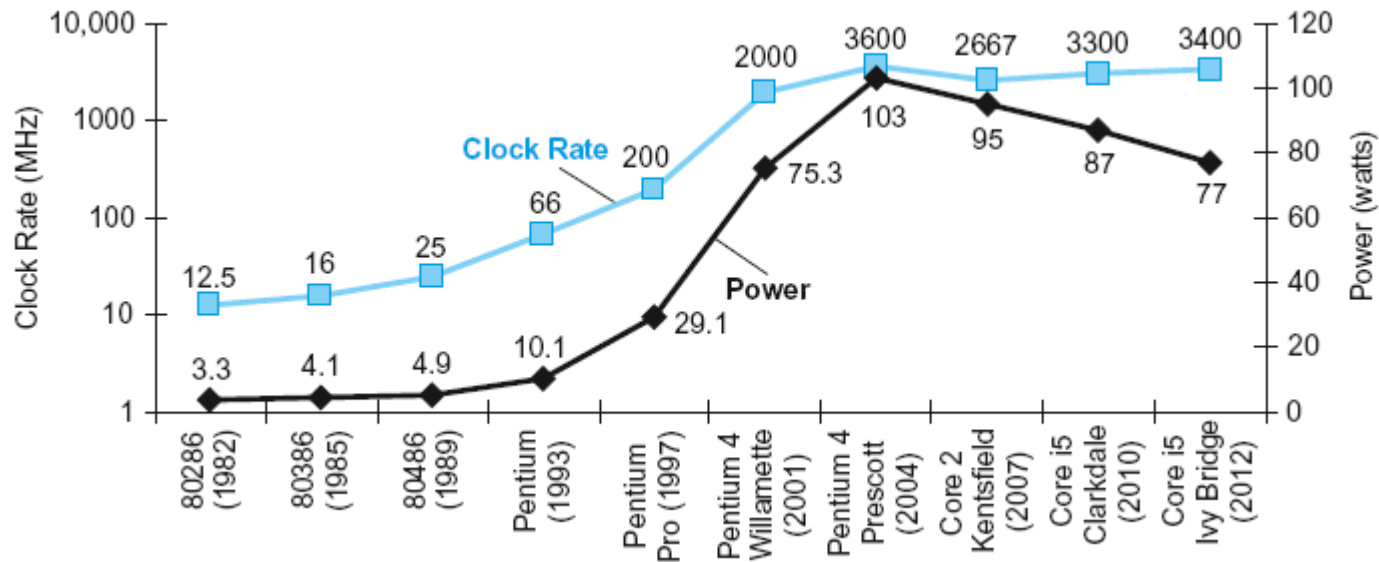
# Performance Summary

## The BIG Picture

$$\text{CPU Time} = \frac{\text{Instructions}}{\text{Program}} \times \frac{\text{Clock cycles}}{\text{Instruction}} \times \frac{\text{Seconds}}{\text{Clock cycle}}$$

- Performance depends on
  - Algorithm: affects IC, possibly CPI
  - Programming language: affects IC, CPI
  - Compiler: affects IC, CPI
  - Instruction set architecture: affects IC, CPI,  $T_c$

# Power Trends



- In CMOS IC technology

$$\text{Power} = \text{Capacitive load} \times \text{Voltage}^2 \times \text{Frequency}$$

× 30

5V → 1V

× 1000

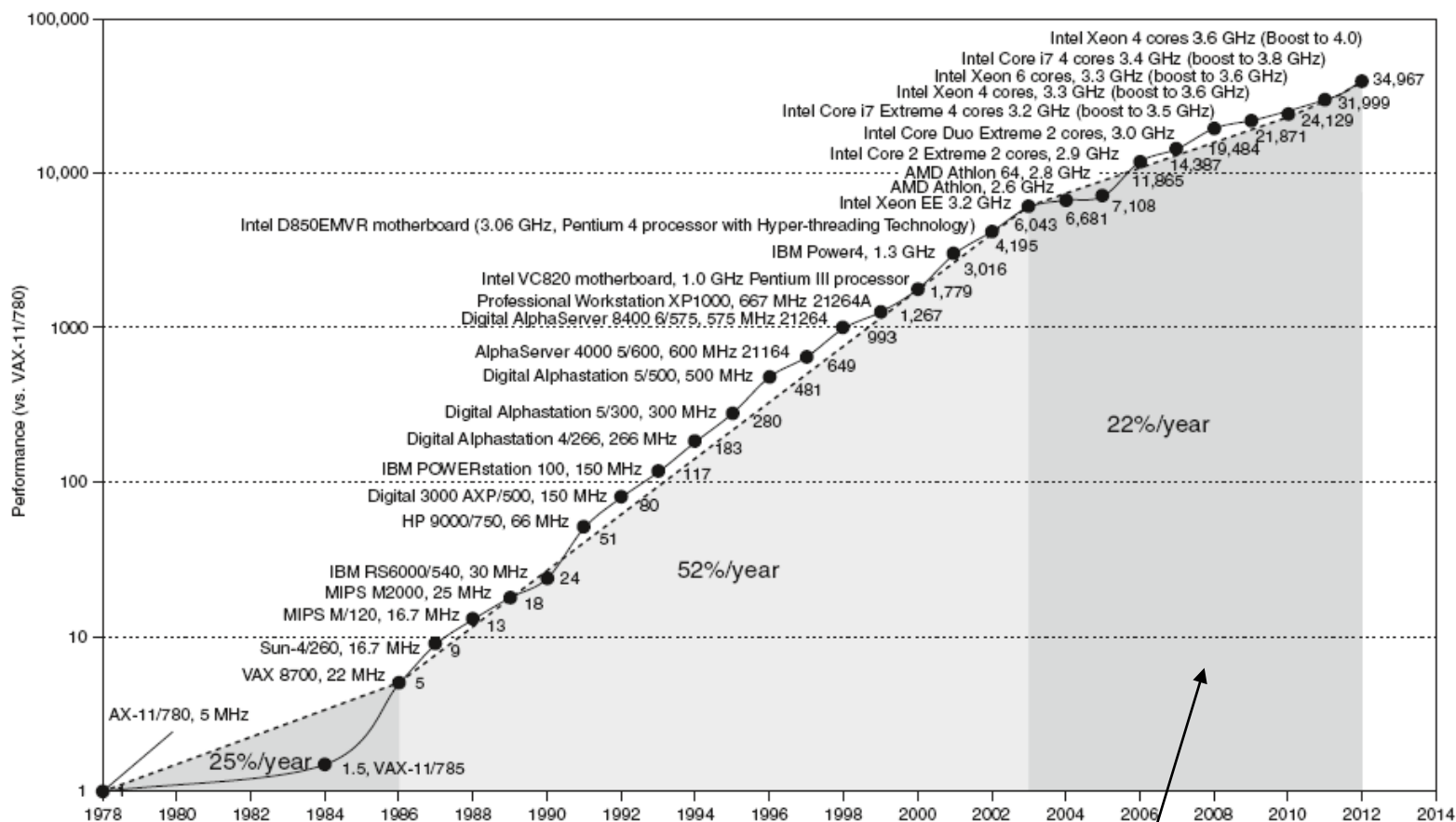
# Reducing Power

- Suppose a new CPU has
  - 85% of capacitive load of old CPU
  - 15% voltage and 15% frequency reduction

$$\frac{P_{\text{new}}}{P_{\text{old}}} = \frac{C_{\text{old}} \times 0.85 \times (V_{\text{old}} \times 0.85)^2 \times F_{\text{old}} \times 0.85}{C_{\text{old}} \times V_{\text{old}}^2 \times F_{\text{old}}} = 0.85^4 = 0.52$$

- The power wall
  - We can't reduce voltage further
  - We can't remove more heat
- How else can we improve performance?

# Uniprocessor Performance



Constrained by power, instruction-level parallelism, memory latency



# Multiprocessors

- Multicore microprocessors
  - More than one processor per chip
- Requires explicitly parallel programming
  - Compare with instruction level parallelism
    - Hardware executes multiple instructions at once
    - Hidden from the programmer
  - Hard to do
    - Programming for performance
    - Load balancing
    - Optimizing communication and synchronization

# SPEC CPU Benchmark

- Programs used to measure performance
  - Supposedly typical of actual workload
- Standard Performance Evaluation Corp (SPEC)
  - Develops benchmarks for CPU, I/O, Web, ...
- SPEC CPU2006 / **SPEC CPU2017**
  - Elapsed time to execute a selection of programs
    - Negligible I/O, so focuses on CPU performance
  - Normalize relative to reference machine
  - Summarize as geometric mean of performance ratios
    - CINT2006 (integer) and CFP2006 (floating-point)

$$\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \text{Execution time ratio}_i}$$

# CINT2006 for Intel Core i7 920

Description	Name	Instruction Count x 10 <sup>9</sup>	CPI	Clock cycle time (seconds x 10 <sup>-9</sup> )	Execution Time (seconds)	Reference Time (seconds)	SPECratio
Interpreted string processing	perl	2252	0.60	0.376	508	9770	19.2
Block-sorting compression	bzip2	2390	0.70	0.376	629	9650	15.4
GNU C compiler	gcc	794	1.20	0.376	358	8050	22.5
Combinatorial optimization	mcf	221	2.66	0.376	221	9120	41.2
Go game (AI)	go	1274	1.10	0.376	527	10490	19.9
Search gene sequence	hmmer	2616	0.60	0.376	590	9330	15.8
Chess game (AI)	sjeng	1948	0.80	0.376	586	12100	20.7
Quantum computer simulation	libquantum	659	0.44	0.376	109	20720	190.0
Video compression	h264avc	3793	0.50	0.376	713	22130	31.0
Discrete event simulation library	omnetpp	367	2.10	0.376	290	6250	21.5
Games/path finding	astar	1250	1.00	0.376	470	7020	14.9
XML parsing	xalancbmk	1045	0.70	0.376	275	6900	25.1
Geometric mean	–	–	–	–	–	–	25.7

# SPEC Power Benchmark

- Power consumption of server at different workload levels
  - Performance: ssj\_ops/sec
  - Power: Watts (Joules/sec)

$$\text{Overall ssj\_ops per Watt} = \left( \sum_{i=0}^{10} \text{ssj\_ops}_i \right) / \left( \sum_{i=0}^{10} \text{power}_i \right)$$

# SPECpower\_ssj2008 for Xeon X5650

Target Load %	Performance (ssj_ops)	Average Power (Watts)
100%	865,618	258
90%	786,688	242
80%	698,051	224
70%	607,826	204
60%	521,391	185
50%	436,757	170
40%	345,919	157
30%	262,071	146
20%	176,061	135
10%	86,784	121
0%	0	80
Overall Sum	4,787,166	1,922
$\Sigma ssj\_ops / \Sigma power =$		2,490

# PARSEC Benchmark

Program	Problem Size	Instructions (Billions)				Synchronization Primitives		
		Total	FLOPS	Reads	Writes	Locks	Barriers	Conditions
blackscholes	65,536 options	2.67	1.14	0.68	0.19	0	8	0
bodytrack	4 frames, 4,000 particles	14.03	4.22	3.63	0.95	114,621	619	2,042
canneal	400,000 elements	7.33	0.48	1.94	0.89	34	0	0
dedup	184 MB data	37.1	0	11.71	3.13	158,979	0	1,619
facesim	1 frame, 372,126 tetrahedra	29.90	9.10	10.05	4.29	14,541	0	3,137
ferret	256 queries, 34,973 images	23.97	4.51	7.49	1.18	345,778	0	1255
fluidanimate	5 frames, 300,000 particles	14.06	2.49	4.80	1.15	17,771,909	0	0
freqmine	990,000 transactions	33.45	0.00	11.31	5.24	990,025	0	0
streamcluster	16,384 points per block, 1 block	22.12	11.6	9.42	0.06	191	129,600	127
swaptions	64 swaptions, 20,000 simulations	14.11	2.62	5.08	1.16	23	0	0
vips	1 image, 2662 × 5500 pixels	31.21	4.79	6.71	1.63	33,586	0	6,361
x264	128 frames, 640 × 360 pixels	32.43	8.76	9.01	3.11	16,767	0	1,056

Table 1: Breakdown of instructions and synchronization primitives for input set `simlarge` on a system with 8 cores. All numbers are totals across all threads. Numbers for synchronization primitives also include primitives in system libraries. "Locks" and "Barriers" are all lock- and barrier-based synchronizations, "Conditions" are all waits on condition variables.

# PARSEC Benchmark

**Parallelization** PARSEC benchmarks use different parallel models which have to be analyzed in order to know whether the programs can scale well enough for the analysis of CMPs of a certain size.

**Working sets and locality** Knowledge of the cache requirements of a workload are necessary to identify benchmarks suitable for the study of CMP memory hierarchies.

**Communication-to-computation ratio and sharing** The communication patterns of a program determine the potential impact of private caches and the on-chip network on performance.

**Off-chip traffic** The off-chip traffic requirements of a program are important to understand how off-chip bandwidth limitations of a CMP can affect performance.

# Pitfall: Amdahl's Law

- Improving an aspect of a computer and expecting a proportional improvement in overall performance

$$T_{\text{improved}} = \frac{T_{\text{affected}}}{\text{improvement factor}} + T_{\text{unaffected}}$$

- Example: multiply accounts for 80s/100s
  - How much improvement in multiply performance to get  $5\times$  overall?

$$20 = \frac{80}{n} + 20 \quad \text{■ Can't be done!}$$

- Corollary: make the common case fast



# Fallacy: Low Power at Idle

- Look back at i7 power benchmark
  - At 100% load: 258W
  - At 50% load: 170W (66%)
  - At 10% load: 121W (47%)
- Google data center
  - Mostly operates at 10% – 50% load
  - At 100% load less than 1% of the time
- Consider designing processors to make power proportional to load

# Pitfall: MIPS as a Performance Metric

- MIPS: Millions of Instructions Per Second
  - Doesn't account for
    - Differences in ISAs between computers
    - Differences in complexity between instructions

$$\begin{aligned}\text{MIPS} &= \frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\text{Execution time} \times 10^6} \\ &= \frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\frac{\text{Instruction count} \times \text{CPI}}{\text{Clock rate}} \times 10^6} = \frac{\text{Clock rate}}{\text{CPI} \times 10^6}\end{aligned}$$

- CPI varies between programs on a given CPU

# Concluding Remarks

- Performance/Cost is improving
  - Due to underlying technology development
- Hierarchical layers of abstraction
  - In both hardware and software
- Instruction set architecture
  - The hardware/software interface
- Execution time: the best performance measure
- Power is a limiting factor
  - Use parallelism to improve performance